

# Land policy REVIEW

## Contents FOR WINTER 1942 Vol. V No. 8

### AFTER VICTORY—WHAT ?

#### *Notes on Post-War Adjustments*

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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE  
BUREAU OF AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS



## Editorial Notes

Here is another special issue devoted to the proposition that next to winning the war itself, the question of what we shall do with the peace is of greatest import. Much water has flowed over the dam since the last special number dealt with this subject in July 1941. We do not attempt to cover it all this time, but simply to present some representative thinking on the world that lies beyond the war.

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# LAND • POLICY • REVIEW

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## Food AS A Weapon OF Reconstruction

By FRANK L. McDUGALL. *Freedom from want of food is viewed here as the starting point for an expansive world economy, with stress on a policy designed to increase greatly the production of most foods.*



WHEN victory comes, will the great industrial powers be prepared to adopt monetary, fiscal, and commercial policies designed to secure full employment?

Will they be prepared to establish an international bank? To provide for the international coordination of fiscal measures to control the catastrophic effects of trade cycles? To encourage the development of backward areas by means of an international authority armed with powers to provide financial and technical aid? Yes, and will they be prepared to reduce barriers to trade?

The United Nations can afford only one answer to these questions if we are to win the peace for which World War II is being fought. To attain the expansive world economy to which we are pledged in the arti-

cles of the Atlantic Charter, we will have to embrace measures like these and embrace them wholeheartedly. It is the purpose of this article to show what part an international campaign for adequate nutrition would play in furthering our general aim of increased economic activity.

In order to secure adequate diets for all its citizens, almost every nation would require some reorientation of its agriculture and some changes in its commercial policy.

Back in 1935 the League of Nations and the International Labor Office launched a worldwide movement to bring about just such a concerted attack on the part of all nations. Some 25 governments established National Nutrition Committees. International meetings of these committees were held. And a start was made toward working

out the implications of healthful diets in terms of agriculture and world trade.

The shape of things to come soon compelled these governments to think in terms of defense rather than welfare. But because freedom from want of food must be the starting point in the victory campaign for freedom from want, the time has come to reexamine five truths that were demonstrated at Geneva between 1936 and 1939.

First: The provision of food adequate in quantity and quality would have a deeper effect upon national health than any other single reform.

Second: Nutritional science can prescribe optimum standards for any given country.

Third: The application of science to agriculture would provide all the food required by diets adequate for health.

Fourth: The adoption of a world wide basis for sound nutritional standards would have highly favorable effects upon world agriculture and world trade.

Fifth: The accomplishment of these aims requires the international coordination of national action and international help to many countries.

### *Conclusion*

"The malnutrition which exists in all countries is at once a challenge and an opportunity," concluded the Nutrition Committee of the League of Nations, "a challenge to men's consciences and an opportunity to eradicate a social evil by methods which will increase economic prosperity."

Some of those who collaborated in the work at Geneva and are now looking ahead propose that action by

the United Nations should take two forms.

On the one hand, the more advanced nations jointly should institute policies to insure that the foods required for health are within the purchasing power of all their citizens. At first blush, this may appear to involve only national action. But it will be easier to obtain widespread support for the necessary steps if each participating nation feels that it is playing its part in a concerted attack upon world poverty.

### *Joint Attack*

On the other hand, these nations should help other nations toward the progressive accomplishment of the same objective. This will involve technical aid from the advanced to the more backward countries, as well as capital assistance for the improvement of agriculture in many countries.

Arrangements should also be made for the supply of certain foods to areas periodically affected by famine, and to areas where severe undernutrition is endemic.

In brief, food adequate for health is a realizable ideal, but its accomplishment will require a sustained campaign conducted on both national and international levels.

That is why any plans for reconstruction on the part of the United Nations should include joint consideration of the following matters:

For all countries about which sufficient information can be obtained, what is the relationship of food supplies to public health?

What is the order of increases in food consumption required to ensure in advanced countries optimum standards of diet and in less ad-

vanced countries a progressive improvement in nutritional standards?

What are the methods used in the various countries to secure adequate food for all, and how might such methods be adapted for use in other countries?

How far can the food requirements of each country be met by improvements in methods of production and by shifts and adjustments of crops or of animal industries?

To what extent is technical and capital aid likely to be needed to enable countries to achieve these aims?

To what extent will international trade in foodstuffs be needed to fill the gap between production capacity and requirements in a given country and what are the obstacles to such trade?

What international arrangements are needed whereby food in apparent surplus supply could be made available for the relief of famine or of poverty stricken areas?

### *Picture*

Thus a general picture of where the world stands in regard to food and agriculture would be obtained.

It would show that while for certain foods the regulation of production may continue to be necessary, the main need is greatly to increase the production of most foods. Few countries could in 1938 have provided diets fully adequate for health from their own production. Most countries would have had to increase the production or importation of some foods that year.

It would indicate that the adoption of sound nutritional policies would have considerable effect upon balances of international payment.

For instance, the United States would be shown to need its whole present production of animal food products for internal use.

It would demonstrate the need for European countries to decrease the production of bread cereals and sugar, and greatly to increase vegetable growing and such forms of animal husbandry as dairy farming.

It would emphasize the dangers to health and economic welfare of relying upon monoculture—such as coffee, bananas, and sugar in the Caribbean area, and wheat and corn in the Danube Valley—and the urgent need for diversification of production.

It would show that the needed readjustments in the various countries would lead to a great increase in international trade in staple food products. In most countries domestic agriculture has been the main source of food. World trade in foodstuffs accounted for only about one-tenth of the amount of food consumed by the world's population in 1938.

It would show that over the greater part of the world, the primitive nature of agricultural equipment and the lack of technical knowledge have prevented anything like a full utilization of natural resources.

### *Tools*

The mechanisms required by the United Nations to give effect to sound policies on food and agriculture will need to be carefully studied.

There should be a World Food and Agriculture Authority, working in close liaison with national agricultural authorities in the greater countries and with regional agricultural authorities for areas such as

Eastern Europe, the Near East or Central America.

The World Authority should recruit a corps of agricultural technical experts, thus opening a career whereby college-trained men of many nations could undertake to improve agricultural technique the world over. The Authority should also be in a position to provide financial assistance for improving agricultural equipment, land development schemes, and so forth. But it should always satisfy itself that adequate technical knowledge is available to control the use of the loans.

Since financial assistance will be needed to enable countries to reorient their agricultural production, there must be close working arrangements between the proposed organization and the proposed international bank. The sums required in order to secure a marked improvement in agricultural production would be relatively small when

compared with those needed for industrialization.

The Food and Agriculture Authority should also act as an instrument for securing national action to see that food in sufficient abundance and variety is within the purchasing power of the poorer sections of each community.

And in liaison with international commodity control organizations, it should work out plans for the supply of foods over and above normal market requirements to poverty-stricken areas free or at costs below world prices.

All of which would be reflected first in improved nutrition; secondly in an increased world demand for cereals, sugar, feeding stuffs, oil seeds, and other staples; and thirdly in a progressive demand for industrial goods beginning with the simpler forms of agricultural implements, manufactures for human consumption, and transport facilities.

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## First

*For the first time in the history of the human race there can be enough of everything to go around. Poverty is not inevitable any more. The sum total of the world's greatest possible output of goods divided by the sum total of the world's inhabitants no longer means a little less than enough for everybody. It means more than enough. The possibilities in that simple statement are beyond calculation—and what we are fighting for is the right to turn some of those possibilities into realities.*

—DONALD M. NELSON

# PRODUCTION, YES

## *But Consumption Too*

By HAROLD A. VOGEL. *Two-thirds of the world's people now subsist on inadequate diets, and it will take more than production to enable them to consume enough food of the right kind.*



ITALIANS like fish; Britons like beef. In our own United States, Southerners take to chitlins, Bostonians to baked beans. Differences in food habits are further expressed by the fact that the men of Asia normally eat about 2,600 calories a day, while taller Europeans consume close to 4,000.

Despite wide variation in consumption habits, the diets of two-thirds of the world's people are inadequate for healthful living even in normal times. War conditions in occupied areas further aggravate conditions of malnutrition. When the United Nations undertake to carry out their pledges after the war, concerted action will be needed to increase the consumption levels of each and every population group suffering from want of food.

To accomplish this on a world basis will require expanded production of cereals by about 50 percent; meats, fish, and poultry by nearly 100 percent; vegetable oils by about 125 percent; milk and milk products by about 150 percent; and fruits and vegetables by over 300 percent.

Even in the United States where diets are comparatively good, a program of adequate consumption will require approximately 4 to 8 percent

more meat, poultry, and fish; 15 to 25 percent more eggs; 30 to 40 percent more tomatoes and citrus fruits; 70 to 80 percent more milk and milk products; and 125 to 150 percent more leafy vegetables.

But the expansion and reorientation of world production is not enough. To develop a world agriculture geared to adequate nutrition requires that action on the consumption front go hand in glove with programs for expanded world agriculture discussed elsewhere in this issue. Such action should, of course, include educational measures and the creation of food consciousness on the part of the peoples of the world. But it must go much further. To attain reasonable nutritional goals within "our own day and generation," as the President put it, more attention must be given to a direct solution of the consumption problem.

A good clue to the adequacy of a nation's diet lies in its dependence upon cereals and potatoes.

Low income, poor living standards, ill health and a short span of life are found where the average diet is high in cereals and potatoes. M. K. Bennett of the Food Research Institute estimates that nearly two-thirds of the world's population de-



rives 80 percent or more of its calories from these foods. Only one-tenth of the people—half of them in the United States—enjoy diets composed of less than 40 percent cereals and potatoes.

Asia, Africa, and several countries in Eastern Europe—notably Poland, Bulgaria, Yugoslavia, and Rumania—depend upon cereals to the extent of 70 to 90 percent of the calories consumed. Almost all the rest of Europe and South and Central America range from 40 to 70 percent. In addition to the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, New Zealand, Australia, Switzerland, and Finland are in the 30 to 40 percent group.

Korea is typical of those countries having monotonous and deficient diets. More than half of the Korean's daily food intake is rice, while the rest is a combination of millet, soybeans, buckwheat, sorghum, sweetpotatoes, and corn. The other foods needed for a balanced diet—vegetables, fruit, milk, and dairy products—are not even listed in Korea's consumption tables.

### *Asia, Africa*

At least 75 percent of the population of Asia have diets below the standards of adequacy for the United States and Europe. Yet throughout large sections of the continent, over 85 percent of the family income is spent for food. Under these circumstances, increased consumption can be attained only through public action.

Some of the knottiest consumption problems are found in India, where the pressure of population on land resources is great and where more than 85 percent of the agricultural population is characterized by

low physical vitality and poor health.

A minimum decent living for a family of 5 would require at least \$68 yearly income, according to standards suggested by Indian officials. Actually, farm tenants studied in a survey by I. W. Moomaw received an average of about \$27 per year, of which \$15 represented production for home use. Owner-operators received an average income of \$45, of which \$23 consisted of consumption of home-grown products. This, in a country where the same researcher found from the records of several hundred school children that less than 2 percent regularly consumed milk in any form!

In most of Africa and in many of the Pacific islands, animal protein foods are considered luxuries. Again the staple diet is carbohydrates, supplemented on occasion by wild meats. A small increased income to both African and Asiatic people usually results in some substitution of wheat for rice and barley, but very little increase in protective foods.

The situation in China has been described by Eunice Tietjens in these words: "There is never enough food to go around. There are too many people for the land to support. It would be a conservative estimate to say that half the people in China never have quite enough to eat. The poor, and there are probably a hundred poor persons for every one who is comfortably off, are always hungry. A little rice or cornmeal, with a dab of vegetable or bean curd, or a little soup twice a day, with now and then some peanuts or a very little fish, this is all the poor in China have."



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# People's

*This is in very truth a people's war. It is a war which cannot be regarded as won until the fundamental rights of the peoples of the earth are secured. In no other manner can a true peace be achieved.*

—SUMNER WELLES

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## Centenarians?

There are tales about the number of centenarians in the Balkans. Unfortunately, the hardy peasant is often the sole survivor of 8 or 10 children born to his parents. Infant mortality rates for the region run from 150 to 200 per 1,000, as compared with 32 in New Zealand and 53 in the United States.

Hungary found that to give her people enough of the right kind of food, milk consumption would have to be increased 120 percent, egg consumption 470 percent, fresh vegetable consumption 20 percent, and other foods in proportion.

The Hungarian National Nutrition Committee came to the conclusion that, "while some improvement might be brought about through State and social relief work, the objectives of providing the whole population with the optimal diet can only be achieved by means of a complete reorganization of agricultural production."

Even in the United States—as in other countries comparatively advanced from a nutritional standpoint—we are far short of our goal.

Bureau of Home Economics studies in 1936 showed that only 27 percent of the families in the United States had good diets, 38 percent were classed as fair, and 35 percent were poor. It was the poorest third, many of them in the Southern States, that did not get enough of the right things to eat.

Similarly, Sir John Orr has estimated that to give all persons in the United Kingdom the same quantity and quality of food as the top 10 percent (the equivalent of \$2.50 per week) would require 124 percent more fruit, 87 percent more vegetables, 80 percent more milk, 55 percent more eggs, and 30 percent more meat.

Such was the pattern the world over when war came. But war makes the picture even worse. Blockades and rationing are creating increasing deficiencies in the consumption of milk, meats, and vegetables, while cereals and potatoes, where they are available, are making up a progressively higher proportion of the average citizen's diet. All of which means that inadequate as the world's diet was before the war, it will be even more demanding of attention when the United Nations undertake to carry out their commitments to secure freedom from want of food.

## What To Do

The question is: What can be done about it?

The answer has already been made in general terms. It calls for an international program for better nutrition on the consumption front,

carried out concurrently with a similar program on the production front. Much more attention must be given to the whole problem before the details can be worked out, but a few guiding principles can already be laid down.

### *Based*

For one thing, a world consumption program should be based upon the collection of experiences gathered through action programs growing out of the war. This may include the extension of successful wartime measures for attaining balanced consumption, allocation of supplies, establishment of food requirements, and lend-lease aid. Appropriate parts of the wartime administrative organization should be retained, and assigned the new function of carrying out a world program for expanded consumption of the protective foods.

In developing any comprehensive consumption program, it will be necessary to take into account consumption habits of the people and variations in consumption deficiencies within each nation, as well as between nations. Distinctions will need to be made between urban groups and farm groups. In the initial stages of the program, effort should be directed toward improving the diets of expectant mothers and children everywhere throughout the world.

Full use will have to be made of such devices as free school lunches, two-price schemes, communal feeding for industrial workers, and

government sponsored canteens. Schools, community welfare services, cooperative associations, established marketing and distribution facilities and others will need to be mobilized to carry out a successful consumption program on a world-wide scale.

Such a consumption program is not to be considered a relief program. Rather, it should be developed as a national undertaking in behalf of the general welfare—much like education, mail delivery, and police protection. Each nation has responsibility for going as far as its resources will permit in caring for the nutritional deficiencies of its own people. But every nation has a right to expect freedom from international economic barriers, and the active assistance, when needed, of other more fortunate nations in accomplishing reasonable nutritional goals.

### *Want*

Food is the first human want that must be satisfied in war-torn countries.

If produced and consumed wisely, it can become the most potent motivating force toward sound reconstruction of the post-war economy and maintenance of the peace that lies beyond.

On the other hand, if food again becomes a weapon of economic warfare carried on between nations or between interest groups, we will lose the peace, and agriculture may become the hotbed for the next world crisis.

# HEALTH, NUTRITION AND LIVING STANDARDS

By FRANK G. BOUDREAU. *There is a direct relationship between all three, says this writer, who believes that to give adequate diets to all classes would lead to an advance in public health comparable to that which followed Pasteur.*



THE Atlantic Charter phrased it in the ringing words "freedom from want." Another way to put it would be that the achievement of a satisfactory standard of living for their own peoples has become one of the things the United Nations are fighting for. But since bitter experience in pre-war years has taught us that high standards of living cannot be achieved by one country or one group of countries acting alone, we now know that our ideal must finally encompass all countries if it is to survive.

The question that remains is: What is the yardstick to be used for determining when a standard of living is satisfactory and when it is not?

The difficulties of applying any ordinary yardstick to countries as different as, say, India and Denmark, are almost insuperable. Cautiously used, however, the vital statistics of the various countries show differences that can only be explained by variations in the standard of living.

It may be argued that not only the state of public health, but also heredity plays a considerable part in longevity. It is probably true that some races are longer lived than

others. But this would not invalidate comparisons between countries inhabited by similar racial stocks or between well-to-do and poverty-stricken areas in the same country.

Exact comparisons of the expectation of life as between countries are not practicable due to differences in census dates. A general comparison can, however, be made. The best starting point is the one-year-old child.

Most recent reports of the League of Nations show that the four countries with the longest expectation of life are Holland, New Zealand, Australia and Denmark, where children of 1 year have an expectation of about 67 years—4 years more than in England or the United States and 10 years more than in Hungary, Finland, or Poland.

Comparisons of death rates per 1,000 inhabitants, infantile mortality per 1,000 live births, and tuberculosis deaths per 100,000 persons also place New Zealand, Holland, and Australia above other countries, while Denmark (excluding infant mortality) and Norway (excluding tuberculosis) have excellent records. This is a remarkable fact. If New Zealand and Australia stood alone at the head of each list, it might be thought to be due to the climate or

the sparsity of population. But the inclusion of Holland, Denmark and Norway voids this theory.

Is there not one factor common to all these six countries? And is not that one factor the relative absence of the grinding poverty which is present at the bottom rung in the social life of the wealthier nations?

The direct relationship between the state of public health and the standard of living finds clear expression in the mortality and morbidity tables of our own country.

Differential mortality rates by income are not available for the United States, but there are some data on differential mortality by type of occupations. These were the basis for some statements made by Josephine Roche, of which the following is an extract:

"From seven of those ten diseases (heart disease, cancer, pneumonia and influenza, cerebral hemorrhage, nephritis, tuberculosis, diabetes, diarrhea and enteritis, appendicitis, and syphilis; these cause three out of four of our deaths)—all but cerebral hemorrhage, diabetes, and appendicitis—the death rates mount steadily as income goes down. The death rate from respiratory tuberculosis is seven times as great among unskilled workers as among professional workers; it is three times as great among the skilled as among the professional. Pneumonia kills  $3\frac{1}{2}$  times more unskilled workers than professional; death rates from diarrhea and syphilis are twice as high for the unskilled as for the professional; cancer's toll of the unskilled worker is 50 percent higher than of the professional. The death rate from all causes is more than twice as high for the unskilled worker as for the professional."

### *122 for Every 100*

Data from many other sources confirm this relationship. Thus for every 100 deaths in the general population, 122 occur among white males and 113 among white females who are industrial policyholders of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company. This, in spite of the fact that the U. S. mortality rate is weighted with a large proportion of low-income persons.

Carefully collected morbidity data furnish much evidence pointing to the existence of the relationship between the incidence and severity of illness and low standards of living. A recent morbidity study showed that among the well-to-do, the annual illness rate was 991 per 1,000 persons, while among those with moderate and low incomes it was 1,063 and 1,113 respectively. This may be expressed in the following ratios: well-to-do, 100; moderate 108; poor, 112.

The National Health Survey showed that the annual per capita volume of disability in the relief group is three times as great as among upper income families—nearly 12 days as compared to less than 4.

Non-relief families with income under \$1,000 experienced a volume of disability twice as high as that in the highest income group. The low-wage earner sticks to his job as long as possible. He seeks medical care only when driven to it. When he succumbs to illness, he is apt to be seriously ill. Yet morbidity data although thus weighted against him show that his morbidity experience is greater and more severe than that of the higher income group.

Infant mortality rates are sensitive indices of poverty. Census tracts in Cleveland from 1934 to 1937 were classified by rentals. In the tract with the lowest rental, the infant mortality rate was 48.5, while in the tract with the highest rental the rate was 32.5. Many even more striking examples could be cited.

The relation of dietary deficiencies to poverty is equally patent. Sir John Orr's report on food income and health and Hazel Stiebeling's studies on family consumption both show clearly that as income declines, less of the protective foods are purchased. As it rises, families buy more of those foods which are rich in essential nutrients.

Income is not the only factor in the choice of diets, but it is one of the most important for the reason that the protective foods are more expensive than high-calory foods which satisfy hunger.

### *Clue*

Some idea of the results of good diets on individuals previously consuming deficient diets may be had from the report of a recent study of prenatal diets. In that study, the offspring of 90 women whose diets had been supplemented during pregnancy all survived, while 14 of the offspring of 120 women in the control group did not survive birth.

Similar but less striking results were obtained by the People's Health League in London. Nearly

1,000 unsuccessful candidates for admission to the British Army before the war were conditioned at a physical development depot at Canterbury, mainly by dietary means. Eighty-six percent of them were admitted to the army at the end of 6 months.

### *Pledge*

Our knowledge of malnutrition is far from satisfactory at present. We are only beginning to recognize early stages of specific nutritional deficiency diseases. Fully developed deficiency diseases such as pellagra, beri-beri, scurvy, and rickets are not very common, although in a bad year as many as four thousand deaths from pellagra may be certified in our South.

There is increasing evidence that hitherto unrecognized nutritional deficiencies exist in large numbers in every community. These affect all classes, but strike most heavily at those on the lowest planes of living. It is these largely unrecognized deficiencies that do the greatest harm.

Making readily available to all classes diets adequate in the essential nutrients would prevent the development of most of these deficiencies. It would lead to an advance in public health comparable to that which followed the work of Pasteur. When the United Nations committed themselves to secure freedom from want, that was the meaning and the promise of their pledge.

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*Our thinking and our planning in the future must be global.*

—WENDELL WILLKIE

# American Agriculture When the War Ends

By F. F. ELLIOTT. *The writer views the shape of things to come under a range of alternative developments.*



TO DRAW a blueprint of what American agriculture will look like when peace comes is impossible. There are too many unknowns and imponderables in the picture.

But if we start from where we are now and work forward in our analysis, we should be able to sketch roughly what the situation will be, assuming certain alternative developments.

For the purpose of this discussion, then, let us divide the years ahead into three periods. The first, from now until hostilities cease. The second, from the end of hostilities until the accumulated demand for durable, semi-durable, and consumer goods has been met. The third, the post-war period proper.

To picture the situation when hostilities cease, it is not necessary to forecast just when the war will end. It will be desirable, however, to make certain assumptions as to how it will end. It seems reasonable to assume that the war will not end abruptly, but rather that it will come to a close first in the European theatre, 6 months to a year later in the Pacific. Regardless of when hostilities cease, it seems clear that the situation existing at that time will be determined in the main by de-

velopments taking place between now and then.

Will there be a continuation and intensification in production of the same agricultural products we have been encouraging during the past year or so, or will there be a slowing down or a possible reversal in some of the trends now under way? Will requirements for agricultural products continue to rise? If so, can we step up production to keep pace with these requirements, or will the scarcity of labor and material prevent such increases? When will we reach the peak of our war production effort?

The answers to these questions will pretty much shape our agricultural pattern when the war ends.

We have clearly not yet reached the peak of our war effort. We are now spending for war purposes around 5 billion dollars each month. This will probably increase to 8 or 9 billion dollars a month at the peak of our efforts. We are continuing to expand our military forces. Undoubtedly, we will be called upon for increased lend-lease shipments of food. As we retake occupied territory, we shall be called upon to feed, clothe and rehabilitate the repatriated peoples. We shall have to build up reserves against possible

further losses of territory, as well as against possible decreases in yield as a result of drought. And we shall also need to make provision for feeding the undernourished and starved peoples of other countries when hostilities cease.

With these developments and demands in prospect, we shall clearly need to put continued emphasis upon such war crops as dairy, poultry and meat products, certain vegetable and canning crops, long staple cotton, and hemp. Due to the further dwindling of labor and scarce materials, we probably shall find it necessary to exercise an increasing degree of selectivity in our production. In other words, we shall have to put first things first, and to use labor and scarce materials only on those things that are absolutely essential to the war effort.

When hostilities cease, therefore, the agricultural pattern might be characterized somewhat as follows:

We shall find ourselves geared to quite a high level of production—higher in certain items than we are today. These increases will be most conspicuous in hogs, beef cattle, poultry and possibly dairy production; in feed grains, hemp, long staple cotton; and in certain of the vegetable crops. Reserves will be high, particularly for lend-lease products although stocks of most products will be considerably above levels maintained in peace. We will be the possessors of an agricultural plant possibly somewhat impaired, but still capable of continued production at high levels. Prices of certain products will be higher than they are today, while agricultural income also will have risen.

On the other side of the picture, industry will be geared to wartime production on a scale only recently beyond our comprehension. At the same time, there will be a large accumulated demand for durable, semidurable, and consumer goods. The greatly expanded and efficient industrial plant will be waiting to fulfill this demand.

Granted these developments, what will the agricultural pattern be in the transition period from the end of hostilities until the accumulated demand for durable, semidurable, and consumer goods will have been met? This will depend upon a number of things. It will depend particularly upon how successful we are in liquidating the war and converting back to peacetime production, as well as upon the nature and scope of the accumulated demand we shall be called upon to fill.

### *Down and Up*

It seems highly probable that we shall not be able to convert back to peacetime production without some recession in business activity and employment the first few months after hostilities cease. Just as bottlenecks developed while we were converting to wartime production, they probably will recur to an even greater degree while we are making peacetime adjustments. But because of the accumulated demand, such a recession should be followed almost immediately by a marked recovery in which business activity and employment should approach the peak of the war.

Agriculture may be less affected by such a temporary recession than other segments of our economy.



True, it would have some effect upon the prices of those products which vary with business activity. It also probably would mean some decrease in the prices of agricultural products generally. But the vast demand for agricultural products for relief purposes that is bound to follow the war will mean that these effects should neither be severe nor prolonged.

We shall not only have to feed the repatriated nationals of the United Nations. We shall undoubtedly be called upon to help feed the undernourished and starved peoples of the defeated nations. And we shall probably find that our stocks and reserves of food products will melt away fast.

For the first 6 to 12 months after the war, these relief needs should continue high. The demand should be heavy for fats, dairy products, meats, and other types of protective foods. Wheat and the other bread grains also will be in great demand, as will cotton.

### *Level Off*

After the initial demand for food for relief purposes has been met, it seems likely that it will level off to some extent. The various countries will have reorganized their domestic economies so that production will begin to rise. Competition from other countries is likely to increase. But with business activity in our own country on the rise, demand for our own farm products should continue at a high level.

Just how long it will be until we meet the accumulated demand for durable, semidurable, and consumer goods is problematical. Some economists say that the recovery phase

of this period will last at least as long as the war itself. But there does not appear to be any fundamental reason why it could not continue for an indefinite period, assuming we are willing to pay the price and make the necessary adjustments.

This much is certain: We have the resources, the skills, and the techniques for keeping our economy on an expanding basis. There is no assurance, however, that we shall so manage our affairs as to bring about this much-to-be-desired situation.

### *Alternatives*

To outline the pattern of agriculture in the post-war period proper is the knottiest task of all. With peace restored, industry converted from wartime production, and things settled down, many decisions as to what our policies will be in the years ahead will have been made. More than in either of the two preceding periods, these policies will determine the pattern that agriculture will follow.

What these over-all decisions and policies will be, obviously we now have no basis for determining. About the best we can do is to set up certain assumed situations, and seek to show what the pattern would be under each.

Let us assume, in the first place, what we might call a "back to normalcy" situation—one in which selfish interests would dominate. We would then return to all the maladjustments in our domestic economy that existed prior to the war; international trade would be stymied; and trade barriers would be lowered little, if any, or might even be raised.

Let us next go to the other extreme and assume a situation in which a forthright effort would be made to revamp not only our own economy but also that of the world, with a view to achieving certain long-time desirable goals for agriculture, the objectives set forth in the Atlantic Charter, and especially the third of the President's Four Freedoms—freedom from want.

Lastly, let us assume a situation between the other two—one in which an effort would be made to develop programs designed to achieve only the more important and pressing of the long-time desirable goals.

The first of these alternatives is a far cry from what we all would like to see in the post-war period. Certainly there is sufficient intelligence, foresight, and statesmanship in this and the other countries of the world to prevent it from happening! But there is no absolute assurance that it will not happen. Conceivably we might win a military victory, yet because of domestic and international selfishness, petty jealousies, and bickering, lose the economic victory. We can only hope that we shall achieve a better ordered world than this.

### *Ideal*

The second of the alternatives shows what the pattern of agriculture would be under a more or less ideal situation. In discussing this alternative, it is necessary to set up certain goals that might be assumed to reflect the long-time desirable situation we would like to see. Without giving a final answer as to what these goals should be, the following are tentatively suggested:

(1) That prices of all agricultural products for domestic consumption be maintained at such levels as to yield parity income—either parity as defined by law or some other definition if a better one can be found.

(2) That not to exceed 20 percent of the total population or 80 percent of the population on farms from 1935 to 1939 (whichever is higher) be maintained in agriculture for the sole or primary purpose of farming.

(3) That agricultural production be maintained at such levels and in such patterns as to permit adequate diets adapted to the economic resources and food habits of the different income groups.

(4) That agricultural production be distributed among the different regions, States and areas so that production will be maintained on a sustained-yield basis; crops and livestock grown in each area will be those best fitted to the area; and units will be large enough to permit efficient operation and at the same time yield adequate incomes.

(5) That land not suited for farming be put to the use for which it is best fitted—forests, parks, grazing and game preserves, watersheds, and so forth—thereby assuring the nation enough forest products, water, and recreational facilities.

(6) That such facilities and services as housing, hospitalization, medical care, schools, and electrification be maintained for rural people at levels necessary to result in the same treatment as city people receive.

(7) That the marketing system be organized so as to process and distribute farm products at the lowest possible cost, make it possible to determine the market prices at all stages from farm to consumer, and

broaden market outlets so that farmers can produce to the limit without having to accept low prices for all they produce.

### *Modified*

In the third and last of the alternatives, a middle course is assumed. It would obviously be quite difficult to achieve all the important adjustments in agriculture and industry needed to realize every goal set forth in the second alternative. Considering the heavy financial burdens that undoubtedly will be faced by the Treasury after the war, the reluctance and inertia of the public in general to accept reforms, and the political uncertainties of international agreements and undertakings, it may be that the goals actually realized will fall somewhat short of the ideals we have discussed.

If we assume that this is the case, we would have to modify the ideal goals accordingly and work out the pattern that agriculture would assume under this modified situation. To do so we would need to estimate specifically what adjustments in production, consumption, marketing, prices, incomes, and so forth would be involved under this situation in the same way as is necessary under the other two alternatives.

True, an analysis of this kind would not tell us specifically what the actual pattern of agriculture will be in the post-war period proper. But it would show what the pattern would be under a range of alternative developments that may be broad enough to set the limits within which the true pattern may fall, whatever the course of events. At any rate, that is about as far as we can go with a situation so beset with unknowns and imponderables as this one is.

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## *Labels*

*Our minds are now creating neat little time compartments labeled pre-war, war, and post-war, but these are like the labels of childhood, youth, and manhood to the individual who lives through them. This is a single and continuous struggle to achieve one goal. Complete victory will not be won until there is a full and increasing use of the world's resources to lift living standards from one end of this planet to the other.*

—MILO PERKINS

# Rural Resettlement:

## ITS PAST AND FUTURE

By JOSEPH W. EATON. *The Government's resettlement programs for farm families are here termed pilot plants that will serve as guides to better living when peace comes.*



NOT THE LEAST of our ranking problems when peace comes will be that of rural rehabilitation.

Take millions of men flowing back from the armed forces to civilian life. Add other millions who may leave their jobs in war industries. Many of them will have farm backgrounds, and may wish to return to their former way of life. Most of them will have little or no capital of their own, in addition to which some may require training and supervision.

The implications are clear. Governmental help will be needed to make their settlement possible. Fortunately, the Government will be well prepared to meet this situation.

The settlement of farmers on holdings that enable them to make an adequate living has always been one of the most important rural rehabilitation activities of the Federal Government. Of 574 million dollars spent by the Farm Security Administration for helping low-income farmers by June 30, 1941, about 200 million dollars were invested in various resettlement projects. This figure includes the funds spent for resettlement by the predecessors of the FSA—the Resettlement Admin-

istration and the Federal Emergency Relief Administration. At the end of the fiscal year in June 1941, the FSA and its predecessors had made provisions for the settlement of 35,415 families on full-time farms.

At present the FSA is practically the only agency resettling farm families as a measure of rural rehabilitation. It took over similar programs conducted by State agencies soon after it was organized in 1937. A few private organizations such as the American Friends Service Committee, Delta and Providence Farms, Macedonia Co-operative Community, Van Eden Community, the Catholic Worker Movement, and others have settled a small number of families, totalling less than 200.

The full time resettlement programs differ from other FSA rural rehabilitation methods such as grants, loans, and medical facilities in that they involve a drastic change in environment.

Families given this type of assistance either are living on submarginal land or have been forced off farms recently. They are settled on government land, with sufficient acreage, capital, machinery, and livestock to earn at least a tolerable income. They are removed from a

hopeless situation to one in which a reasonable and intelligent effort will keep them from the relief rolls. They are also supplied with expert advice and guidance in farming and homemaking. Good housing, sanitation, medical facilities, and schools are available to them.

### *It Costs Less*

The cost of this program to the public is relatively low. The FSA has spent, on the average, \$75 for every family aided. This estimate includes the write-off of loaned sums that seem unlikely to be repaid, cash grants, and administrative costs of the FSA. It does not include the total investment in resettlement projects discussed above, since it is expected that most of these funds will ultimately be repaid with interest.

This cost may ultimately turn out to be somewhat higher or lower for the resettlement programs, depending on what percentage of the long-term loans are actually repaid fully with interest. But assuming that \$75 can be considered a reasonable average, the FSA points out that "this cost can be contrasted with \$350 or more per year that admittedly is required to maintain farm families on direct relief." In the long run, resettlement of most low-income farm families probably will be not only cheaper than continuous relief. The material, educational, cultural, and social benefits derived by the families will probably be much greater as well.

Despite these advantages, the fact remains that in the long run, resettlement programs have a regressive aspect: Regardless of the benefits they bestow on individual

families, they do nothing to relieve the overpopulation of our soil.

### *True*

It is true that most of the improvement in the level of living of the resettled families does not come from increasing their volume of cash crops. Some of their most important gains accrue through an increase in self-sufficiency, better housing, and the production of a greater variety of foods and other conveniences on the farm. Yet experience has shown that the volume of crops shipped to the market by these families increases to some extent. Except during times of war, it tends to sharpen competition among farmers, thus depressing agricultural wages and prices and pushing marginal producers to a sub-standard level of living.

Clearly, resettlement of marginal farm families is not a solution. It is a temporarily expedient stop-gap. This fact has been implicitly recognized by the Department of Agriculture. A special committee appointed by Secretary Wickard to study the displacement of farm families came to the following conclusion:

"The Department of Agriculture believes that only as many farm families should be permanently engaged in agriculture as can be afforded a reasonably adequate standard of living. There are at present more farm families than can be provided with efficient family-size farms and, while this situation prevails, the Department will help insofar as it can to make the situation as tolerable as possible."

A few methods of resettlement are more than temporary stopgaps.

They have an experimental value, which gives them added significance. Prominent among them are the FSA cooperative corporation farms, where an apparently successful attempt is being made to combine the economic advantages of large-scale farming with the social advantages of the traditional family type unit.

There are also the part-time farming subsistence homesteads, which are experimenting with combining farm and nonfarm employment in areas where neither one alone would be sufficient to provide a decent level of living. In the communities of Greenhills and Greendale, an effort has been made to bring together rural and urban people, giving the farmers community facilities which no purely rural community could support. In many of the individual homestead communities, attempts are made to meet the economic disadvantages of the small family type farm through integrated cooperative action among the homesteaders.

Although in a small measure these projects may aggravate the problem of rural overpopulation, their experimental significance often over-

shadows this long-run disadvantage. Such experiments can be fully justified if they help to develop more rational methods of rural economic and social organization. And the lessons we gain from these experiences might prove invaluable for making the basic readjustments that sooner or later all agriculture will have to make.

### *Pilot Plants*

They might help us to discover patterns of farm organization that would enable us to apply technology without encouraging the development of absentee ownership on the one hand or a class of permanently rootless farm laborers on the other hand. They might also show a way of making farm life more interesting, challenging, and satisfying to intelligent young people who often leave the farm because they believe it offers little but drudgery and isolation. Above all, the projects might prove that farmers can enjoy an adequate income, together with good working conditions, insurance against adversity, and satisfactory health, education, and recreation facilities.

It seems desirable that those resettlement projects which show promise of being pilot plants of progress should be studied carefully now while the war is still in progress. Only thus will we be prepared to utilize their experiences at the end of the war when they will be needed. They might well prove to be important not only for the development of a better rural life in America but also for the reconstruction of Europe, where vast areas and millions of devastated people will have to be resettled.

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## *Too*

*Most of the things that farmers are doing now to win the war should help win the peace, too.*

—CLAUDE A. WICKARD

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# COMPILING HISTORY

## *As We Live It*

By EVERETT E. EDWARDS. *This is an account of the war records project to assemble and develop data on the how, when, and why of administrative actions for the duration.*



AGAIN AND AGAIN during the defense and war period, Federal administrators and their staffs, cognizant of the value of the testimony of past experience, have struggled with two highly important problems of information:

What was the experience of the Government during the last war in mobilizing a given sector of the economy? What procedures were successful? Why did others fail?

What has been done and what is being done in all fields of the present war administration?

In attempting to answer the first type of question, research staffs have constantly consulted the records of World War I both in the various departments and in The National Archives. This latter agency alone answered 237,000 requests for records, or information based on them, during the fiscal year 1942. Of this total, approximately 80 percent of the requests were from Governmental agencies, and most of them were concerned with war-related subjects.

For the most part, documents on a given phase of Federal administration during World War I are available at these sources. Yet be-

fore these documents in mass tell a coherent story, they require synthesis and interpretation which cannot be accomplished overnight. There is nowhere available to the administrators of this war a ready summary of action taken in the 1917-19 period, together with an explanation of decisions made and an outline of courses followed.

The second type of question requesting summaries of action taken since the beginning of the national emergency has been answered only partially by available materials in the form of charts and outlines. The present need is for discerning recorders to summarize, synthesize, and otherwise provide careful and succinct analyses of current achievements.

In addition to serving as convenient guides for contemporary administration, summaries of this sort would greatly facilitate the research of those of the post-war generations who seek to explain the actions of the United States Government during this crucial period of world history.

Keenly aware of these two distinct yet related uses for data on administrative actions, the President directed the Bureau of the Budget



in the Executive Office of the President to take specific steps to meet them. In his directive, the President stressed the value of keeping objective and accurate records of wartime administration for current as well as post-war use.

### *Steps*

To this end, the Bureau of the Budget set up a staff of analysts under Pendleton Herring of Harvard University to correlate and advise the various agencies of the Government in preparing careful records of their defense and wartime activities.

In view of the importance of this work, a committee of prominent administrators and scholars was set up to advise the Bureau of the Budget. Members were Arthur M. Schlesinger, president of the American Historical Association; William Anderson, president of the American Political Science Association; Louis Brownlow, president of the American Society for Public Administration; Waldo G. Leland, director of the American Council of Learned Societies; Donald Young, research secretary of the Social Science Research Council; Solon J. Buck, Archivist of the United States, and Archibald MacLeish, Librarian of Congress.

In accord with the presidential directive, the Secretary of Agriculture approved a war records project for the Department of Agriculture.

### *How and Why*

Responsibility for the project was first assigned to the Office of Information. Concurrently, the Secretary directed the several bureaus and agencies of the Department to report on their defense activities and

to follow with quarterly summaries for the duration. Later, the project was transferred to the history staff of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics. At the invitation of the Secretary, John M. Gaus of Harvard University is serving as special advisor on the project.

In view of the importance of the War Records Project for current as well as future administrative use in the Department, emphasis is being given to the "how" and the "why" as well as the "what" and "when" of present administrative action. This justifiable attention to backgrounds necessitates the creation of records, as well as the assembling of key documents. Although it is anticipated that the staff will continue to rely largely on the cooperating bureaus for source materials, an attempt will be made to obtain information on given programs that cannot be derived from written records.

There is no desire to assemble a file of data which replaces or disrupts the routine accumulation of archives in the agencies and bureaus. Rather, it becomes the duty of the staff of the War Records Project to bolster customary care against any action which vitiates the orderly and complete preservation of official records by the Department.

Also with a view to aiding current as well as post-war administration, staff members of the War Records Project are consulting with key representatives of the various fields of activity within the Department. In this way, it is hoped that the most pressing problems and the most significant activities can be delineated. Copies of the basic records relating to such problems and activities which may be needed

for research in the future can then be segregated for special notice and treatment. Specialists in the various fields will contribute appreciably by naming what they think will be the leading problems confronting the post-war generation.

Most of the key agencies of the Federal Government have inaugurated activities comparable to the War Records Project of the Department of Agriculture. The particular forms that they are taking vary with the responsibilities and needs involved. But the focal point and clearing house for all these projects is the Records of War Administration Project directed by Pendleton Herring in the Bureau of the Budget.

In order to profit by the experience of other agencies with similar projects and to contribute a maximum to the over-all survey of Federal administration during the cur-

rent emergency, the staff of the War Records Project is coordinating its activities closely with those of Dr. Herring's office.

The War Records Project of the Department of Agriculture as here outlined is a program of great potentialities in terms of providing administrators now with essential information, and at the same time establishing the basis for future analysis of the contributions of American agriculture to the war effort.

If the project is executed as conceived, every bureau in the Department will benefit today and later from the availability of summaries of its wartime actions for use as keys to its official records. The project, however, is one that cannot be carried out by one agency alone. Its success depends upon the cooperation of the entire Department.

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*When war is done, the drive for tanks must become a drive for houses. The drive for food to prevent the enemy from starving us must become a drive for food to satisfy the needs of all people in all countries. The drive for physical fitness in the forces must become a drive for bringing death and sickness rates in the whole population down to the lowest possible level. The drive for manpower in war must become a drive for employment to make freedom from want a living reality. The drive for an all-out war effort by the United Nations must become a drive for an all-out peace effort based on the same cooperation and willingness to sacrifice.*

JOHN G. WINANT

# WHAT'S AHEAD FOR *Western Dairymen?*

By JOHN A. GUTHRIE. *In this companion piece to an article by Marion Clawson in LAND POLICY REVIEW for June, increased milk production on the Pacific Slope after the war is forecast both as a dilemma and a challenge.*



BY 1970, it is expected that the equivalent of nearly 5 million acres of fully productive new land will be added to that already under cultivation on the Pacific Slope. About 95 percent of this increase will result from the development of irrigation projects, the other 5 percent from clearing cut-over lands and draining swampy and inundated areas. The increase in land under irrigation will be considerable—possibly about 50 percent of the present acreage receiving water.

Judging from past experience and present indications, much of this additional land will be put to the production of dairy products.

One reason: the soil and topography of most of the proposed projects are such that a large proportion of the acreage will necessarily be planted in soil-conserving crops. On the Columbia Basin Irrigation Project, the largest of the proposed developments, it is expected that about two-thirds of the 1,200,000 acres will be planted in alfalfa, clover, and pasture. The limited possibilities of finding profitable markets for much additional fruits, vegetables, field or specialty crops grown in this area will also favor production of live-

stock products. As a result, dairying—in addition to cattle, sheep, and hog raising and fattening—is likely to be one of the main sources of income for the settlers on these new lands.

Another reason: dairying usually has the advantage over other livestock enterprises on irrigated farms. This advantage stems from the fact that the dairy cow can use effectively the large amount of hay and pasture normally available on irrigated land. Besides, the small family sized dairy farm is usually an efficient unit since it can make good use of family labor available the year round.

Thus dairying is almost sure to be the most important enterprise on these new developments. On the Columbia Basin Project, approximately two-thirds of the feed produced will probably be fed to dairy cows. A substantial amount of the feed produced on the new lands will, of course, be fed to beef cattle, sheep, hogs, and chickens.

How is this increase in milk production likely to affect western dairymen?

A partial answer to this question can be had by examining the probable future relationship between pro-

duction and consumption of dairy products in the region.

### *75 Percent More*

A recent study of production and marketing possibilities for dairy products on the Pacific Slope indicates that, over the next two or three decades, the production of milk which may be expected from newly developed lands in that area will be between four and one-half and five and one-half billion pounds. This represents an increase of 45 to 55 percent over the 1940 production on the Pacific Slope.

In addition to the production from new lands, some increase is likely to come from present farms. The production of milk from present farms in the area may be expanded by about 15 percent during the next 30 years. The greatest increase will probably occur during the first 10 or 15 years. This expansion may be expected to result from greater production per cow, higher yields of field crops, more use of available feed for dairy cattle, more complete development of irrigated lands which have not reached their maximum output, and possibly from some shifting over from the production of fruits, vegetables, and other intensive crops into dairying.

The stimulus to increased production of milk occasioned by the war may also have the permanent effect of expanding the output of the area.

Total production of milk from present and new farms on the Pacific Slope, therefore, is expected to increase 60 to 75 percent above the 1940 figure.

Whether an increase in milk production of this size will lower the price that farmers in the area re-

ceive for their butterfat depends largely on whether consumption increases by a like amount.

The most important single factor affecting total consumption within the area is the size of the population. For several decades the population of the Pacific Slope has been increasing rapidly—much more rapidly than in the United States as a whole. But the slackening off in the growth rate for the country as a whole has also been reflected in the West. It is expected that the increase, then, will be much smaller than formerly.

According to a recent estimate, the population of the eight Pacific Slope States is not expected to increase by more than 25 percent of the 1940 figure during the next three decades. This estimate was made before much of the effect of war industries on population shifts had made itself felt on the Pacific coast. But all available evidence points to the conclusion that by far the largest percentage of the workers moving into the war industries of the Pacific coast cities come from within the Pacific Slope area itself.

What of the relation of per-capita consumption to total consumption?

### *Consumption*

Over the last two decades, the trend in per-capita consumption of all dairy products in the Pacific Slope States has gradually risen. This upward movement has now slackened off, and there is no clear evidence that it will again rise. Per-capita consumption of butter appears to have declined; per-capita consumption of evaporated milk, which in the last 15 or 20 years increased greatly, has now levelled off.

In addition, the average age of the people in the area is increasing, which will tend to reduce individual consumption of dairy products.

Offsetting these factors are the effects of (1) educational and advertising campaigns, and (2) Government programs such as the food stamp plan, free school lunches, and the like—all designed to increase consumption among low-income groups.

### *About the Same*

It is generally agreed that dietary standards could be raised by increasing the consumption of dairy products. Yet at this point there is little basis for concluding that the per capita consumption will be appreciably higher in the future than it is at present. Thus total consumption of milk will probably increase at about the same rate or at only a slightly greater rate than the population.

On the basis of past experience, the export market offers little more hope as an outlet for additional dairy products from the Pacific Slope. The Philippine Islands, Hawaii, Alaska, and the Orient have taken formerly but a small quantity of the supply of dairy products from the Pacific Slope. Uncertain though the outlook for the future is, the fact remains that even if the average exports to these markets over the last 10 years were doubled or trebled, the quantity absorbed there would be a small percentage of the domestic consumption.

Thus it appears likely that in the post-war period, production of dairy products on the Pacific Slope will outstrip consumption by an appreciable amount. If the area was

already on a surplus basis, or was heavily deficit in its dairy requirements, this additional production from new lands would not seriously affect the regional price structure. During the last 10 years or so, however, the Pacific Slope has not produced sufficient dairy products to supply its own needs, and the regional price of butter has averaged a cent or two above the Chicago price.

A shift from a deficit to a surplus basis would tend to lower the price which farmers would receive for their butterfat by possibly 3¢ or 4¢ a pound.

The effect of the increased production from the Pacific Slope upon the national price of butter, although much less pronounced than upon the regional price, may also make itself felt. But such factors as the national conservation program, improvements in breeding, feeding, and management of dairy herds, and future policy with respect to international trade will probably have much more to do with the national price than will developments on the Pacific Slope.

### *Brighter*

In view of the foregoing, the post-war outlook for the western dairy farmer is not promising.

There is, however, a brighter side to the picture. Improvements in crop yields, in feeding, breeding, management of dairy herds, and the like may result in lower costs of producing milk. To boot, increased efficiency in the manufacture, transportation, and sale of dairy products would result in better prices to the dairy farmer for his milk.

Opportunities for savings through the development of efficient and economical facilities for handling and selling dairy products are particularly good where new lands are being brought under cultivation. On the Columbia Basin Project, it is estimated that as much as 2¢ on each pound of butter manufactured could be saved and returned to the farmer if plant facilities were located and operated in the most efficient manner. A saving of this amount would do much to offset the unfavorable price changes arising from increased production.

Chances are good for increasing the consumption of dairy products by bringing more forcefully before the public the facts concerning their high food value, and also by improving present products and developing new ones.

One possible outlet for the additional production of butter from the Pacific Slope is the Orient. International trade after the war may be in part on a subsidized basis. Accordingly, some of the surplus milk from the Pacific Slope area may well go to raise standards of living among less privileged peoples abroad.

The post-war problems of the western dairy farmer loom rather formidably at this time. But by careful timing of the development of our irrigation projects and intelligent study of the many problems involved, the additional production of dairy products can undoubtedly be absorbed by the consuming population, and in such a way as to raise the level of living of all concerned.

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## Imagine

*General MacArthur's men on Bataan were not defeated. They were starved out. About all those men had to eat from early February until their surrender in April was rice and mule meat. The defenders of Bataan had to give up from sheer exhaustion. Of course, we had all kinds of food to send them, but it was simply impossible to get it there. That time it was a question of shipping, but imagine how we'd feel if some day such a battle would be lost because the food had not yet been produced. Or imagine how we'd feel if some day the people who are fighting our battle in China or Russia would have to starve to death because American farmers had fallen down on their job.*

—M. CLIFFORD TOWNSEND

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# Train Them Now

## FOR SERVICE LATER!

By ERIC ENGLUND. *Herewith an account of the new Institute in Geo-Economics and Politics to train administrators and technicians for work in foreign countries after the war, and of the part one man will play in it.*



"SINCE we don't know what the world will be like after the war, what's the use of planning for it?"

Shortly after a skeptic on the value of post-war planning asked this question, I had two visitors—one from Shungking, China, the other representing Yugoslavia's government-in-exile.

The Chinese visitor was studying rural organization on behalf of his government, with a view to improving rural China after the war. When I expressed my admiration for this evidence of confidence in the future on the part of the Chinese people in the midst of a life and death struggle, my visitor said, "Ah, but China looks to the future."

The Yugoslavian, too, was interested in planning for a better rural economy in his country when the war is over and his people freed from the heel of the invader.

Both instances stand in sharp contrast to the skeptic's question. They are not isolated exhibits of man's faith in the future, and of his desire to do something toward making the post-war world what it ought to be. Every concrete step to translate this faith into practical action commands the attention of all who share

the faith. This is especially true when the will to act takes the form of definite programs of work, without detracting from that task that has priority over all other tasks—the winning of the war.

One such translation of faith in the future is represented by a newly created Department of Geography, part of a broad program at the University of Maryland announced under the tentative title of "Institute in Geo-Economics and Politics."

Its general purpose: to give expression to the belief that international cooperation through understanding and service will build for human improvement, security, and lasting peace when the war is ended.

More specifically, the purpose of the Institute is to train men and women for administrative and technical positions, both governmental and private, in foreign countries after the war.

The Institute will include departments in modern languages, political science, economics, military tactics, psychology, history, geography, and international trade. Except in the last two departments named, existing University departments will be expanded to offer instruction in the above subjects. It is expected



that informal cooperation will be arranged with several governmental departments, and that students in the Institute will study some of the problems which these governmental departments are facing. Members of the faculty may hold such positions as consultant with the various branches of the Federal Government.

Students in the Institute will be college graduates, but undergraduate courses may be offered by the professors in order to develop prospective graduate students.

In the Department of Geography, about half the work will be research, the other half teaching. The Department will include a professor specializing in Latin America, another in North America excluding Mexico, another in Europe excluding the U. S. S. R., another in Eastern and Southern Asia, who may temporarily include the Soviet Republic in his field. Included in this Department also will be a cartographer, one or more research assistants, and a number of student assistants. The head of the Department will teach the courses dealing with North America. Appointments of professors to teach the geography of the other continents have not been announced.

## Head

After 30 years in the United States Department of Agriculture, O. E. Baker is leaving his present position as senior social scientist with the Bureau of Agricultural Economics to become head of the Department of Geography for the new Institute.

Dr. Baker has a wide international reputation in the fields of economic and human geography. While his departure from the Government service is a real loss to the Bureau and the Department, it is confidently expected that his field of work will continue to grow in his new connection. As in all great fields of scholarship, the growth of the field as a whole is more important than any particular institution in it, more to be sought after than the role which any individual or agency may play in its advancement.

For this reason and for the added reason that there will be ample opportunity for staff members of the Bureau and the Department to continue to work with Dr. Baker, his new connection marks a forward step in the field for which he has done so much in the 30 years of his service here.

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*We can no longer take breezily and casually the fact of war. Daily and hourly it has been growing grimmer and more deadly, and it will continue to do so. We dare not think that, of course, victory is ours; but we must think that nothing else than victory dare be ours. To think boldly is to act boldly, and to act boldly is to make each effort count in this war with spiritual death.*

—JAMES M. LANDIS



## Books

FOOD: A WEAPON FOR VICTORY. *Bertram Fowler*. Little, Brown and Company. Boston. 185 pages.

by FRANCIS D. CRONIN

THE JACKET of this book carries the legend that it has been published "because this is the first book to deal with the problem of food relief to starving nations after the war; because it argues that a master plan should be organized at once by the United Nations to carry out this relief; because it describes concretely what the master plan should be; and because it shows conclusively that the propaganda value of announcing such a plan to the occupied countries may be a potent weapon in winning this war."

Whether or not the book does all this, the author has succeeded remarkably well in presenting a strong case for international planning now for the kind of a world we should like to have when peace is restored.

His basing point: "We should be as ready for the eventuality of peace within the year as for a long war." In planning and achieving the new world order, he sees food and the need for food as playing a prominent role, providing the initial impetus to the type of world organization required to attain the war aims of the United Nations. To do so, the author concludes that a rather complete break from many of our accustomed ways will be necessary.

Bertram Fowler is well equipped to write on this subject. Formerly

on the staff of the *Christian Science Monitor*, he has been a frequent contributor to leading magazines and has written widely and lectured in the social science fields. He has had two successful books published previously: *Consumer Cooperation in America*, and *The Lord Helps Those*. But especially as a student and exponent of cooperative activities among individuals, Mr. Fowler could be depended upon to see and describe the great need for cooperation among nations in the difficult years ahead.

To America today, much of the war-torn world is looking for deliverance from a scourge. What will happen when the oppressors have been brought to task and we enter the period of rehabilitation beyond? Will America take a position of leadership in establishing and maintaining a new world order, or will its responsibilities end with military victory?

ACCORDING to Mr. Fowler, "The belief in the policy of isolation has vanished upon the incontrovertible proof of its impossibility. The Europe from which America retreated at the close of World War I has vanished. The issues evaded at the close of World War I have become sharp, clear, and concise.

This time there can be no withdrawal. The responsibility now rests upon America as the acknowledged leader of the United Nations."

The author draws a sharp indictment of the unplanned peace that brought World War I to a close. The Treaty of Versailles, he says, ushered in an "age of paradoxes." An age in which many went hungry and died of starvation while huge surpluses of food piled up. An age in which America emerged a creditor nation but refused to make it possible for debtors to repay. An age in which we attempted to sell to the world but refused to buy. An age in which the principles of democracy for which we had fought successfully were flagrantly flouted.

The implication is plain: Had America participated actively in an international plan following World War I, much of the economic and social distress of the past decade would have been obviated.

As it was, "In America we paid for our folly in terms of billions spent on relief; of more billions to save our farm population from complete bankruptcy." In Europe the results were even more dire, culminating in Fascism, Hitlerism, and the present holocaust.

Now, for the second time within a generation, America is moving into a position of leadership in international affairs, based as before upon her tremendous capacity to produce the materials and supplies without which the war could not be won. Again the opportunity is ours to lead the way out of chaos. Bertam Fowler is one of the corps of foresighted citizens who would begin doing something about it now.

Food is becoming short throughout the world. Among the many countries facing famine today are some that were safe from that threat in the last war. From now on, food shortages will be increasingly acute to a degree far beyond previous experiences.

It has been estimated elsewhere that 125 million oppressed Europeans must be freed from hunger before there is a chance for lasting peace. The first requirement in a rehabilitation program, therefore, will be to feed Europe. The food will have to come from the great producing countries of the United Nations.

As Mr. Fowler sees it, "The United Nations will not be able to speak of democracy and ideals to empty bellies."

TO FILL empty bellies, huge stockpiles will be necessary. We should be building them now so that distribution can begin promptly when the fighting stops. But this takes planning and financing. It also takes organization.

"We must set up an international commission with the full and vigorous support of the United Nations behind it. The commission must be backed by a huge international financial pool. It must be empowered to buy up existing food surpluses and convert what are now artificial shortages into surpluses when the cessation of hostilities releases vast quantities of foodstuffs hitherto used in munitions manufacture. It must be authorized and equipped to allocate shipping facilities for the transportation of food from all producer nations to Europe starting on the day that hostilities

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# Resolved

*Our American people are utterly resolved to go on until they can strike the relentless blows that will assure a complete victory, and with it win a new day for the lovers of freedom, everywhere on this earth.*

—HENRY A. WALLACE

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cease. It must act now with the military authorities and humanitarian leaders to organize an army to distribute this food to all needy countries."

THIS is the author's plan, but its scope goes beyond food. Medical services will be needed to stamp out pestilence and disease, and possible disease areas should be located in advance. The major producers of protective foods—dairy and poultry products, leafy vegetables, fruits, fishliver oils—would be called upon at once to prepare stock piles of such items, processing them by canning, freezing, or dehydration for future distribution in connection with the food and medical relief programs.

From European headquarters, staffs of workers experienced in relief activities should be prepared to launch an action program in relief without loss of time. General staffs in charge of the various phases of

relief, and with "authority comparable to that of Generals in charge of various fronts during war time," would direct the efforts. Hand in glove with the army of occupation, police work, sanitation, food preparation and distribution would all be closely coordinated.

As famine conditions disappear, relief would merge into reconstruction, with the international financial pool providing credits for long-range activities. But in providing these credits, care should be taken not to repeat previous errors. They cannot be used for exploitation, for schemes which permit the few to trade at the expense of the many. Artificial shortages and trade restrictions cannot be tolerated.

"THE credits issued for the reconstruction of Europe should be for highly productive purposes, the only type of investment in which any creditor nation should ever be interested," according to the author.

Expanding production and free enterprise should open the door to a new kind of world in which there would be not a single area of want. With this idea, imperialism as we have known it in the past is incompatible. So, for that matter, are many other prevalent notions on political economy.

The book is stimulating. It proposes international lines of action that appear feasible. Certainly if we are not to drift about haphazardly after this war with results comparable to those we achieved last time, plans must be laid and organizations created to prevent it.

In brief, Bertram Fowler has made a good case for action now as well as later.

ILL FARES THE LAND. *Carey McWilliams*. Little, Brown and Company, Boston. 419 pages.

by CONRAD TAEUBER

CAREY McWILLIAMS has already done much to arouse the conscience of the Nation over its lowest paid and most neglected group—migratory and other seasonal agricultural workers. He paints the picture against a nationwide background in this book. Drawing upon a large volume of existing literature, he tells a story that is not likely to become outdated soon, even though the pressure of large numbers of unskilled workers is being temporarily relieved by wartime demands for manpower.

The lot of the people who harvest the crops of the rich valleys of California, the conditions under which they have been working and existing, has been described before. Their depressed wages, sub-standard housing, inadequate health and sanitary facilities, and unemployment during the off-season have become well known.

But these conditions are not unique to the highly specialized truck and fruit areas of California. They are found wherever specialized agriculture has come to depend upon a large volume of unskilled labor for short seasons, primarily at harvest time. The author's surveys of available data take him to the Atlantic Seaboard, to the Wheat Belt, into Colorado, Ohio, Indiana, Texas, Oklahoma, and Missouri.

McWilliams is not content merely to describe the plight of the migratory agricultural worker; he seeks to account for it as well. Through the author's eyes, the message of the migrants is this: "A great change is

taking place in American agriculture—the industrial revolution has finally hit the farmer."

BESIDES describing the migrant, therefore, the book also considers the industrialized farm and the processes whereby it is rapidly transforming American agriculture.

McWilliams reasons as follows: the new industrial revolution is uprooting the rural economy, but this time it is agriculture itself, not industry, that is being revolutionized. The agricultural revolution involves technological changes, yet it goes beyond that.

It also means greater dependence upon the market, and an increasing cleavage between the upper and the lower strata in agriculture. It means a growing differentiation between the farmer who is oriented to a market and the other for whom there seems to be nothing but "subsistence noncommercial vegetation." And it means a widening gap between operation of the land on the one hand, and control of the land and other instruments of production on the other hand.

These developments make it appear to the author that the family-sized farm is doomed and that some other development will take its place. Possibly the new form will be the industrialized farm. McWilliams sees in the work of the Farm Security Administration the suggestion of a possible alternative in the form of large-scale cooperative farms. He also sees considerable promise in the establishment,

through public action, of some yardsticks for production, processing, and marketing.

The author draws as his conclusion: "... until this colossus of industrial dominion, and the processes which created it and the relationships upon which it is predicated, are brought under adequate social controls, then the basic causes of dislocation in American agriculture will not have been corrected."

AN ADVERTISEMENT for this book describes it as an angry book. The description is apt. Anger is one of the emotions likely to be aroused in the reader—anger that such conditions have been allowed to exist and to spread. The question that remains, however, is whether or not the author's interpretation of these conditions—and the projections which grow out of this interpretation—are valid. And it is here that some caution appears to be necessary.

The appalling conditions described throughout most of the book are found chiefly in those parts of agriculture which have least felt the growth of technology. That means that there is a basic contradiction between the thesis set forth by this book and the fact that the combines at work in the Great Plains have almost completely eliminated the employment of harvest hands. For what has happened in the Great Plains is that some labor has been displaced, and an earlier group of agricultural migrants has been forced to move elsewhere.

It is precisely in this Great Plains area that a complete history of corporation farms leads one to question the belief that this form of organization will become predominant.

Whether the development of technology has doomed the family-sized farm, or tended to enlarge its size, cannot be settled in a book review. But all evidence is not on one side.

MOREOVER, it is an oversimplification of the relations of population growth in rural and urban areas to assume that the migration to cities during the twenties is evidence that people were *driven* from farms. Even during the worst of the depression years, most migrants were moving from areas of less opportunity to areas offering them greater opportunity. That they should have to choose among alternatives at a low level of living is an indictment of our economy as it has functioned.

McWilliams has raised some basic issues that will not disappear as a result of the war. Under the stress of the war and post-war periods, numerous decisions will be made without allowing time for discussion. It is all the more important that in such times the people who make those decisions are aware of the basic trends and issues at stake in agriculture today.

Books like this, therefore, have a very real contribution to make now. Unfortunately, the book contains many minor errors in the text itself and some in its citations of source material. Yet the work will help formulate the issues and develop clearer definitions of the concepts used in reaching decisions governing the future of agriculture. It will do so directly as a result of the author's labors. It will also do so indirectly because there will be much disagreement with the interpretation it presents, and the clarification of positions taken should also lead to further enlightenment.

FOOD CONSUMPTION AND DIETARY SURVEYS IN THE AMERICAS, RESULTS—METHODS. *Robert Morse Woodbury*. Report presented by the International Labour Office to the Eleventh Pan American Sanitary Conference in Rio de Janeiro, September 7 to 18, 1942. Montreal. 64 pages.

by CAROLINE B. SHERMAN

CERTAIN American countries have now been studied by the International Labour Office with regard to selected phases of nutrition. The results have been so compiled that they can be compared with those previously published by the Office for other countries, although in this report the comparisons are made only among these specified American countries.

Selection was made on the basis of adequate available data. Countries included are Canada, the United States, Puerto Rico, and Mexico in North America, and Colombia, Venezuela, Brazil, Argentina, and Chile in South America. The variations between these studies are duly allowed for, and the limitations of the results are outlined. In general, the information with regard to food consumption and nutrition is for wage earners' families in urban areas.

Comparisons between these countries are made by means of tables and brief text. Transformations

facilitate the work, but lack of full comparability is acknowledged. Methodologies occupy the second half of the report, with suggestions for improvement in future studies of this nature. The list of sources is long.

TO ATTEMPT to summarize the comparisons here would be unwise. A study of the compact document itself will repay the student. For as Edward J. Phelan makes clear in his preface, the far-reaching depression in the last decade and the unprecedented demands of these present years have emphasized beyond all reasonable question the vital part of good nutrition in human welfare.

It is now generally recognized that a thorough consideration of the whole question of adequate nutrition for the various peoples of the world is essential to any comprehensive plan for post-war economic and social reconstruction.

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RURAL AMERICA TODAY—IT'S SCHOOLS AND COMMUNITY LIFE. *George A. Works and Simon O. Lesser*. University of Chicago Press. Chicago. 450 pages.

by PAULINE S. TAYLOR

THE AUTHORS have set themselves the task of describing the Nation's number one educational

problem—rural education. The data they use in presenting the problem convincingly show that education in



America is a privilege of only some of the people. They speak of a full half of the Nation's children as being deprived of that equality of educational opportunity which should be theirs by virtue of the fact that they are free Americans.

The authors are not content merely to present the problem. They show what the Nation, the State, and the local community can do to right the present situation. Their presentation is not theoretical but rather down to earth, backed by case histories and reliable figures. They draw from a wide variety of sources to show how it is possible to solve the educational problem.

Throughout the report, education is treated in the broadest possible terms. The school is recognized as an important institution, but the school is given its proper setting in the community. The authors insist that the school problem is the community's responsibility, and they keep ever in the foreground the

demographic and economic factors showing this interrelationship.

REALISTIC as they are in their approach, the authors recognize that the educational problem cannot be solved overnight. They speak of the solution as a process which can be worked out only as people understand the full significance of the problem and express a willingness to do something about it. They look upon community planning as capable of solving the problem, but only when there is close cooperation with State and national leaders.

In the final analysis, they conclude that rural people themselves must assume primary responsibility for the kind of civilization they want.

This book should be a basic guide for post-war thinking on problems of education. It should be on the reading list of all students, both urban and rural, who are interested in a better understanding of education and its place in a functioning democracy.

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## Small Doses

Sidelight on the Committee on Nutrition of the League of Nations, prominently mentioned elsewhere in this issue, is the following yarn:

The late M. Jules Gautier, serving on the committee as a special representative of the French peasants, contained himself for 2 years while no good word was said by the experts in favor of wine. Then with flashing eyes and flowing beard, he rose to the occasion. Pounding the table tempestuously, he fumed: "Have the Anglo-Saxon scientists found no place for wine among the protective foods?"

Sir Edward Mellanby, as representative of the Anglo-Saxon contingent, came to the rescue. Soberly, deliberately, carefully enunciating each word, he made the classic answer that has since been echoed around the earth.

Said he: "Science regards wine as a social anaesthetic, useful when taken in small doses, but otherwise deleterious."

# NOTES FROM ENGLAND

(*Herewith the second in a series of letters being published in LAND POLICY REVIEW from Douglas Cockerell, a bookbinder living in Letchworth, about 30 miles from London, to his brother, Theodore D. A. Cockerell, professor emeritus of zoology at the University of Colorado and research associate at the University of California Citrus Station.*)

During 3 years of war, the housewives of England have had to master by degrees the ever increasing complications of an elaborate system of rationing controlling the purchase of food and clothing.

Most food and clothing now have both a money and coupon value, and people have had to learn to think in these dual terms. A housewife takes with her to market the ration books of the household, her purchases being limited by the coupons available as well as by the money she has to spend. For instance, the meat ration, which is altered from time to time, now consists of a weekly allowance of 1 shilling and twopence worth for each ration book. With a household of five people, this allows a weekly purchase of 5 shillings and tenpence worth of meat, which will provide a joint for the week end.

There is not much choice, and the housewife has to take what happens to be in stock. In addition, a quarter of a pound of bacon is allowed for each book, and there are still some meat products such as liver, sausages, and sausage meat that are not rationed—although these are apt to be in short supply. Prices are controlled, and are not affected by local scarcity.

For butcher's meat, butter and fats, cheese, eggs, sugar, and some other things, the housewife has to register with dealers she selects and then cannot buy these things at other shops.

The cheese ration is now half a pound a week for each ration book, but declared

vegetarians can get an extra half pound in lieu of meat. Two ounces of butter, 4 ounces of margarine and 2 ounces of cooking fats (generally lard) is the weekly allowance for each person. If butter and margarine are beaten up together in a little warm milk, the resulting product is very like butter in texture and taste.

Fish is unrationed, but the price is controlled. It is not surprising that there is apt to be a shortage of fish, considering that a large proportion of trawlers are serving with the navy and the greatly increased danger to the remaining fishing boats due to enemy action.

The supply of fresh eggs is limited, and adults are only getting about 1 egg a fortnight, with a tin of 12 dried eggs every 2 months. Children get more. A good many people keep a few fowls, and they can get a small allowance of poultry food in place of their egg ration.

The weekly allowance of sugar is half a pound a person, but during the summer there were extra allowances totalling 1 pound a book intended to encourage domestic jam making. The jam ration is 1 pound a month, and for 2 summer months this could be taken in sugar. There has been much domestic activity in bottling fruit for winter use, and although the normal production of wide-mouthed bottles has been increased from 1 to 8 million this year, there is still a shortage of bottles in some places.

We each get 2 ounces of tea a week, and

this for a fair sized household is enough, although people living alone find it too little. There are very few oranges, but other fruit juices provided for babies seem to be satisfactory substitutes. Vegetables and fruit are not rationed, but prices are controlled.

Supplies of milk vary from time to time. Nursing mothers and small children can get a pint a day, and have the first call on supplies. Adults are supposed to get at least 3 pints a week if available, but when there is a surplus, more than this is distributed. Evaporated milk can be had if "points" are surrendered, and last winter there was a good supply of dried skim milk in powder form. With practice and ingenuity, you can get quite good results with both dried eggs and dried milk; even omelettes can be made fairly successfully from dried eggs.

Each ration book contains sheets of "points" ration tickets. These vary in value from time to time because the authorities alter the points value of anything the use of which they want to encourage or discourage, the points acting much as varying prices act in a free market. Points ration coupons can be used at any shop, and control the purchase of such things as tinned foods, cereals, biscuits, and dried fruits. There are special coupons for sweets, the allowance varying from 2 to 4 ounces a week for each person.

Soap is rationed, but enough is allowed for careful domestic use even though more washing has to be done at home than before the war because the laundries are very short of staff.

Clothing of all kinds except hats is strictly rationed, and all garments have coupon values assigned to them. Children get a rather more liberal allowance than adults. Some special clothing for work such as boiler-suits is either unrationed or given a low coupon value.

Household fuel, coal, coke, gas, electricity, and oil is in practice rationed on a

semivoluntary basis. Each house is given a "fuel target" based on the number of rooms and the number of inhabitants. In our house, this calls for a reduction of about one third of our normal consumption. To achieve this is going to be difficult and will entail some discomfort in the winter, but we hope to manage it. Most of our neighbours are asked to make even greater economies. Should the "voluntary" scheme fail, strict rationing will be enforced.

There is no petrol for private cars, and it is possible that the tires of cars laid up may be requisitioned as the rubber shortage is acute. Petrol for business is also restricted, and most purchases have to be carried home from the shops. Bread may only be delivered twice a week, and there is a pooling arrangement for milk delivery.

The shortage of so many things in the shops is to be partially met by making large quantities of "utility" clothing, crockery, and furniture to standard designs that aim at saving time and materials. For instance, no turn-ups are allowed on men's trousers; men's socks are to be 6 inches shorter; and women are not allowed high heels! A good deal of trouble has been taken about the design of these "utility" goods so that they may come in reasonable variety, be pleasant in appearance, and serve well.

Control of the retailer is gotten by regulating his supplies either by the number of ration books he has registered with him or by the coupons he returns. Shops can open coupon accounts at the banks and send coupon cheques to their wholesalers to authorize supplies being sent to them. As the Government is the only importer of food, prices can be fixed for overseas supplies, and the prices of home-grown food are in many cases controlled by a system of farming subsidies.

In spite of the added complications to life caused by rationing and the many other irksome regulations, we go on fairly cheerfully and probably fewer people are underfed now than before the war.

*The four freedoms of common humanity are as much elements of man's needs as air and sunlight, bread and salt. Deprive him of all these freedoms and he dies—deprive him of a part of them and a part of him withers. Give them to him in full and abundant measure and he will cross the threshold of a new age, the greatest age of man.*

—FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT

